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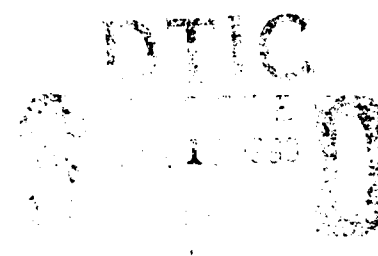
BUFFALO SOLDIERS
THE FORMATION OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY
REGIMENT: OCTOBER 1866 - JUNE 1871

A Thesis presented to the faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

BY

William E. Gorham, LCDR, USN
B.S., Florida A&M University, Tallahassee, FL, 1980



Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
1993

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MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

BUFFALO SOLDIERS: THE FORMATION OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY REGIMENT; OCTOBER 1866 - JUNE 1871 by Lieutenant Commander William E. Gorham Jr., U.S. Navy, 79 pages.

This study documents the Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment from its formation on March 15, 1869, through its first deployment from Fort McKavett, Texas, on November 1, 1869. This study's focus is on the policies which led to the formation, the assignment of personnel, and the initial campaigns of the eight individual companies.

The Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment was formed by the Reorganization Act of 1869, which consolidated four black infantry regiments into two units, the Twenty-fourth and Twenty-fifth Infantry Regiments. The initial four black regiments, the Thirty-eighth, Thirty-ninth, Fortieth and Forty-first, served throughout the south and the west during the Reconstruction period. Moreover, these units served as an important test-bed for black soldiers in the United States Army. In addition to a detailed chronology of events, this study addresses the social and military implications of their formation.

The performance of the Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment provided a springboard for successful integration of black soldiers into the regular Army. The history of the black infantry regiments during Reconstruction and their exceptional service in the building of the west, clearly demonstrate their desire and ability to serve despite the lack of full citizenry. The paper ends with suggestions and areas for future study.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
APPROVAL PAGE.....	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vi
CHAPTER	
1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	22
3: THE FORMATION OF THE BLACK REGULAR REGIMENTS....	29
4: TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY REGIMENT.....	53
5: CONCLUSIONS.....	64
APPENDIX	
A. FIGURES.....	75
B. GENERAL ORDERS.....	80
C. LINEAGE.....	82
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	84

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

TABLE		<u>PAGE</u>
1:	MANPOWER: BUREAU OF COLORED TROOPS.....	13
2:	UNION ARMY MANPOWER - 1865.....	17
3:	POSTS MANNED BY USCT.....	19
4:	U.S. ARMY MANPOWER - 1869.....	55
5:	TWENTY-FIFTH INFANTRY POSTS - 1869.....	57
6:	CONSOLIDATION POSTS, TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY....	59
7:	COMPANY POSTS, TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY.....	59
FIGURE		
1:	CHOLERA OUTBREAKS.....	76
2:	DEPLOYMENT TO STAKED PLAINS.....	77
3:	DEPLOYMENT OF FORTY-FIRST INFANTRY.....	78
4:	FORT MCKAVETT, TEXAS.....	79

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Following the Civil War, the United States Army began to demobilize. Part of this demobilization was the reestablishment of a longstanding peacetime regular force. The Army Reorganization Act of 1866 established a larger force, increasing the army force structure from 30 to 60 regiments. It also allowed for the first time newly freed black men to serve in the regular army.¹

Although blacks served admirably in the Union Army during the Civil War, they were considered "Volunteers," as were many whites. Their demonstrated bravery and heroism during the war assisted in the final decision to form six black regiments: two cavalry, the Ninth and Tenth, and four infantry, the Thirty eighth, Thirty-ninth, Fortieth, and Forty-first.²

Many of the black soldiers serving in the new black regiments were drawn from the United States Colored Troops. By July of 1865 over 123,156 soldiers were mustered in the Bureau of Colored Troops.³ Recruitment during the war was not difficult, for many newly freed blacks had little employment opportunities following slavery. The black

regiments performed a vital role during Reconstruction and in the west. The Thirty-eighth Infantry was formed at Jefferson Barracks, Missouri in 1866, and distinguished itself in numerous battles along the western frontiers, serving in outpost duties and skirmishes with Indians in Kansas and New Mexico.⁴ The Thirty-ninth, initially formed in Greenville, Louisiana, was later headquartered in New Orleans to assist in the rebuilding of the south following the war. The Fortieth also served in the rebuilding of the south, headquartered in Point Distribution, Virginia and North Carolina until early 1867.⁵ The Forty-first infantry regiment, established in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, was garrisoned in west Texas and southern New Mexico.⁶

This thesis focuses on the formation of the Twenty-fourth infantry regiment, which was formed by the Reorganization Act of 1869. This Reorganization Act consolidated the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first infantry regiments into the Twenty-fourth regiment while the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth were merged into the Twenty-fifth infantry regiment. Both regiments deployed to the Southwest and became an integral part of the post war western expansion.

Life for a soldier in an infantry regiment was less glamorous than their cavalry counterparts. Most U.S. infantry duties in the west involved escorting and guarding outposts and stagecoach stations along the routes of travel.

These regiments also augmented cavalry units in raids against Indians in the Southwest. Though enduring many hardships and heroic service, the 24th and 25th Infantry Regiments paved the way for America's westward expansion.¹

Thesis Purpose

This thesis details the early history which led to the formation of the Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment at Fort McKavett, Texas, from October 1866, to June 1871.

Significance of Study

This study documents the history of the unit's formation and addresses the following: What policies lead up to the formation of the regiment? How was it formed? What were its duties? What occurred during that first year of the unit's formation? This thesis is significant because it is the first comprehensive documentation of the events leading to the formation of the Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment. There is little information available on any black units before or after the Civil War. That which does exist focuses primarily on the more glamorous cavalry units. This thesis attempts to partially fill this historical gap.

Limitations/Delimitations

The scope of this thesis is limited to the events which lead to the formation of the Twenty-fourth Infantry

Regiment in 1869 until its first deployment from Fort McKavett, Texas in 1871. The thesis is also limited in addressing the government and military policies, events and social implications involved in the regiment's formation.

The study does not evaluate the effectiveness of the methods and procedures the U.S. Army used to man or train the regiment, nor does it compare the formation of the Twenty-fourth Infantry regiment with the formation of other Army infantry or cavalry regiments.

Background

With the bayonet you have unlocked the iron-barred gates of prejudice, opening new fields of freedom, liberty and equality, of right to yourselves and your race forever.

Major General Benjamin F. Butler
Army of the James, January 8, 1865

A study of the first black infantry regiments would be incomplete without addressing the service of black soldiers during the Civil War. It is ironic the Civil War, the legality of slavery being one of its major issues, was probably one of the best proving grounds for the black soldier. The American Army was not clear on what role the black should play in the military. It was certain, however, the negro would eventually be used in the defense of the country.

Black service in the defense of America can be traced to militia units many years (1640s) before the Revolutionary

War. There were many pockets of freemen throughout the colonies; most were those blacks who had arrived in America as indentured servants and had paid for their freedom. Many of these small colonies formed their militia units from all able bodied men, many of whom were black. Militia units served as local armies, mostly used for warding off Indian attacks. Even so, leaders of these small enclaves would not allow prejudice to get in the way of the colony's survival. In some cases, blacks were explicitly recruited. In 1652, a Massachusetts Bay law requested the services of "all Negroes and Indians from sixteen to sixty years of age . . . be listed in and hereby enjoined to attend [militia] training"⁹

Blacks bore arms both in the South and the North, although militia policies varied by colony. Blacks served in Virginia, North Carolina and New Orleans militia units up until the late 1760s.¹⁰ Blacks participation in the militia units was sporadic and not standard procedure. The arming of negroes was many times a last resort or a contingency in case of an emergency. In 1704, the assembly of the Province of South Carolina passed an act which allowed plantation owners to recruit and arm slaves. It decreed that those slaves "by care and discipline, may be rendered serviceable towards the defence [sic] and preservation of this province in case of actual invasion; and to make the assistance of our said trusty slaves more

certain and regular."¹¹ These temporary militia units were not considered part of the American Army, and therefore, did not provide an avenue by which a freedman could willingly serve his country in a military career. This policy would remain the case up until the Army Reorganization Act of 1866. Nevertheless, The early volunteers demonstrated the black American's resolve to serve his country when needed, as would soon happen in the Revolutionary War.

Revolutionary War (1775-1783)

The Revolutionary War was the first war of the new American Army and would provide one of the first proving grounds by which black soldiers would demonstrate their fighting abilities and patriotism. Ironically, a black militia man Crispus Attucks was the first to die in the U.S. Revolutionnary War; he was killed in the Boston Massacre in 1770.

The decision to use negroes in battle was once again probably a matter of practicality. The Continental Army was a small, loosely organized citizen-soldier force that did not have the support of all the colonies. It had to rely heavily on the colonial militia since it was outmanned by the British Army. Negro soldiers served during the Revolutionary War in integrated regiments, receiving many awards and decorations for their valor.¹² Continental army

and militia leaders were not the only groups to take advantage of the readily available manpower.

The British immediately saw roles for free negroes and slaves in the British Army. In November 1775, Lord Dunmore, British Governor of Virginia, issued a proclamation offering freedom both to slaves and to free Negroes who would escape bondage and join the British Army in Virginia.¹³ It can be safely assumed Lord Dunmore's proclamation was not offered solely out of concern for the freedom of Negroes. It served British military interest in order to weaken the colonies and increase loyalists manpower. Only a few slaves took advantage of the offer. These soldiers, over three hundred in number, were named Lord Dunmore's "Ethiopian Regiment."

The issue of arming freemen and slaves continued to generate much concern in Congress through the summer of 1775. By December 30, 1775, General George Washington, Commander of the Continental Army, requested Congressional approval to use free negroes in the Continental Army.¹⁴ By the end of the Revolutionary War over 5,000 had served in the Continental Army. As quickly as the war ended, former negro militiamen, freemen, and slaves were disarmed and many were returned to slavery. A significant trend which would shape future policies in the enlistment of negro troops had begun.

War of 1812 (1812-1815)

Following the Revolutionary War, U.S. Army policy regarding the enlistment of negroes returned to a pre-Revolutionary War status, that of exclusion of Blacks from regular military service; however, small numbers of freemen remained in peacetime militia units. This was more the exception than the rule. Even in those isolated cases, the units rarely trained or mustered.

The War of 1812 did not require the extensive manpower needed in the Revolutionary War. Consequently, there was little incentive or critical shortages to encourage the enlistment of freemen or slaves.

There were isolated instances in which Blacks did and performed admirably. One such instance was in 1814 during the defense of New Orleans under Major General Andrew Jackson. Blacks made up a significant proportion of the New Orleans population and Jackson could multiply his army by taking advantage of these large numbers and solicit the support of the already trained and capable New Orleans Free Negro Battalion.¹⁵

On 21 January 1814, Jackson issued a proclamation to all free "colored" inhabitants of Louisiana. In it he acknowledged discriminatory U.S. Army practice of denying negroes entry into the military service. "Through a mistaken policy you have heretofore been deprived of a participation in the glorious struggle for national rights

in which our country is engaged. This shall no longer exist."

Jackson believed it was important to treat the potential soldiers with respect. He attempted to assure freeman that they would be treated honorably, paid "the same bounty in money and lands now received by white soldiers of the United States" and would not "be exposed to improper comparisons or unjust sarcasm." General Jackson went even further to demonstrate his sincerity by proclaiming he had coordinated his proposal with the Governor of Louisiana.¹⁶ Jackson's two "colored battalions" fought valiantly on the front lines and contributed to the defeat of the British in New Orleans.¹⁷

The events preceding and including the battle of New Orleans were significant for two reasons. First, it was one of the first instance where the negro's loyal service and struggle for equality in the military was acknowledged in writing. In Jackson's appeal, he spoke to Louisiana freemen as proud, intelligent citizens whom had been previously mistreated in the military service to their country. Second, it produced one of the first Black field grade officers, Major Vincent Populus who was recognized by the United States Army.¹⁸

The stage was quickly reset after the War of 1812. Peacetime had once again encouraged Army officials to revert to old policies limiting the participation of negroes in the

Army. Negroes once again were prohibited from wearing the uniform. In a letter to John White, then Speaker of the House of the Twenty-Seventh Congress, Secretary of War J. C. Spencer addressed the current army policy with regard to negro persons. Army regulations authorized "only free white male persons to be enlisted into the Army."¹⁹ The letter went on to stipulate "there are no blacks or colored persons serving as soldiers; but neither regulation or usage excludes them as mechanics, laborers, or servants, in any branches of the service where such force is required."²⁰ Freeman would find themselves in these positions at the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861.

Civil War (1861-1865)

Union Army policies for the recruitment and service of freemen and slaves had not changed at the beginning of the Civil War. There were, however, many freemen in the northern states who volunteered to join the Union Army and defended their country. Many of these "volunteers" were encouraged by a very active abolitionist movement in the North.²¹

Once again, despite government practices which were overtly discriminatory against negroes in the service of their country, negroes responded to the clarion call to defend the nation. Official government reasons justifying the prohibition of recruiting free negroes were never

clearly documented. Freeman had previously demonstrated in the Revolutionary War and War of 1812 they could hold their own on the battlefield and act as a force multiplier for the Army. A few generals did consider the use of freemen and slaves as soldiers but these actions were quickly overturned.

In an unprecedented move, on May 9, 1862, Major General David Hunter of the Department of the South issued General Order 11, which declared "Slavery and martial law in a free country . . . [are] incompatible . . . [therefore] the persons in [the states of] Georgia, Florida and South Carolina - heretofore held as slaves are therefore declared free."²² President Lincoln quickly rescinded the order on May 19, 1862, declaring Hunter's orders unlawful and clearly reserved the right to determine "whether at any time in any case it shall have become a necessity indispensable to the maintenance of the Government to exercise such supposed powers."²³ Lincoln's position on the enlistment and arming of freemen and slaves generally reflected the same mood as the senior Union Army leadership.

To many Army officers, the issue of slavery was political and not a factor in their strategy. The slave in the south was considered property, not a potential ally or enemy. In some cases, officers resigned from the army in order to protest the enlistment of negroes into the army. One such case involved an officer of the New York Volunteers

posted in New Orleans in 1863. He and several fellow officers were outraged over the possibility of serving alongside negro troops, so much that they preferred to "be beaten than serve with negro troops."²⁴

By May of 1862 the numbers of slaves escaping southern plantations and those left by fugitive slave masters had caused problems for many Union commanders. Although some Union commanders returned runaway slaves to their masters, many began to use them as laborers. Seeing this use of the negro as a force multiplier while at the same time weakening the South's economic infrastructure, Congress passed the Militia Act of 1862. This Act authorized the use of negroes as builders and laborers. One month later, on August 16, 1862, General Orders Number 109 approved the recruitment of freemen and slaves as Union soldiers.²⁵ Union generals quickly began to muster freemen and ex-slaves into the Union Army. Regiments were formed in Massachusetts, South Carolina, Kansas and New Orleans.

The formation of black regiments multiplied rapidly, causing the Army to place all black regiments under the command of the newly created United States Colored Troops (USCT) and the Bureau of Colored Troops in May 1863. By October of 1864 there were over 140 black regiments, with a total strength of 111,950. (See Table 1.)

TABLE 1
BUREAU OF COLORED TROOPS October 20, 1864

12 Regiments of Artillery (Heavy)	12,226
Artillery (Light)	833
6 Regiments of Cavalry	5,605
121 Regiments of Infantry	<u>83,286</u>
 Total	 111,950

Source: Adjutant General Report, Bureau of Colored Troops
 October 20th, 1864.

The arming of slaves was not seriously considered in the South until the final year of the war. The south had addressed the use of ex-slaves as soldiers earlier in the war, by proclaiming that any Union officer commanding negroes would receive death.²⁶ Nevertheless, the success enjoined by the Union "colored regiments" had clearly taken its toll on the South.

By December of 1864 a series of newspaper articles was appearing in the South suggesting the employment of slaves as soldiers.²⁷ In a letter to the Confederate President Jefferson Davis, Samuel Clayton appealed for the arming of slaves. In defense of his argument, Clayton commented, "the enemy fights us with the negroes, and they will do very well to fight the Yankees."²⁸ Clayton's

argument centered on the concept that the negro was property, and as such, the Confederacy had the right to "[use] our property for the same purpose."²⁹ The enlisting of negroes in any number in the Confederate Army never materialized before the war ended.

The Black Regiment's contribution to the defeat of the Confederacy was monumental. Numerous regiments were known for their courage and fortitude. The Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, formed by freemen in from Northern states, participated in one of the first major northern offenses in the South against Fort Sumter, South Carolina. Another heralded regiment, Colonel Thomas Higginson's First South Carolina Volunteers, garnered much respect from Union officers for their courage and performance in battle. By the end of the war, negroes had served in infantry, cavalry, artillery and quartermaster billets. They had served as officers in the U.S.C.T., in addition to positions as laborers, pioneers, spies and couriers.

Issues over adequate pay and compensation continued throughout the war, but most negro soldiers fought for a higher reward. Ex-slaves fought for their freedom, and the freemen of the North and South fought for their citizenship. The Civil War ended with 17 black soldiers receiving the Congressional Medal of Honor for heroism during the Civil War.³⁰ Blacks had demonstrated their patriotism and courage in uniform. As the nation moved away from the

"emergency" and toward peace, those policies concerning the recruitment and military status of blacks would again change.

Demobilization (1865-1867)

As was usual policy, a demobilization program went into effect following the war. Many white volunteers left the army immediately following the end of the war. Washington received many complaints from white volunteers and their relatives requesting releases from service and a quick return to their home states. Colored volunteer regiments were deactivated at a much slower pace and were continually recruited until June 1, 1865.³¹ In contrast, the majority of white volunteers (ninety-five percent) was out of the army by November 1865. By October 1865 over forty-two percent of all colored volunteers who served during the war remained on duty.³²

The army faced numerous significant manning obstacles at the end of the war. First, the regular army was tasked with occupation duties in the South. Secondly, the expanding western frontier presented an enormous challenge.

All this was to be accomplished with a post Civil War Regular Army force of 16,000 men.³³ General Grant quickly responded to the dilemma by mandating that all colored volunteers remain on duty and fulfill their full enlistment contracts.³⁴

This was unprecedented, for usual Army policy was to muster out the volunteers as soon as possible following a war. In a letter to Major General William T. Sherman, Commander of the Military Division of the Mississippi, Grant described his plan to "replace all white Volunteers with regular troops or colored, and muster the former out" by Spring of 1866.³⁵ Once again the negro volunteer found himself as a quick manpower fix for the Army as he had during both the Revolution and the Civil War. Few negro soldiers complained, for life in the military provided status, employment, and opportunities few newly freed slaves could claim. Ironically, in February 1865, there were instances in Henderson, Kentucky, where freemen were forced, through torture, to join volunteer regiments. However, before President Abraham Lincoln's assassination on April 14, 1865, he quickly prohibited this unlawful practice.³⁶

As with most volunteer regiments still in service, black regiments performed the peacekeeping duties in the southern states. The garrisoning of Army regiments in the south following the war caused much concern. Union troops had as a mission the provision to provide a controlled, peaceful management force and to assist in the rejoining of a torn nation. Surprisingly, most of the colored volunteer regiments were stationed in the south. By the end of 1865 over 83,000 colored troops were stationed below the Mason - Dixon line. (See Table 2.)

TABLE 2
UNION ARMY MANPOWER - 1865

<u>State</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Colored</u>	<u>Total</u>
Kentucky	-	10,196	10,196
Virginia	18,483	-	18,483
North Carolina	4,516	2,530	7,046
South Carolina	5,732	4,620	10,352
Georgia	13,376	3,789	17,165
Mississippi	3,806	10,500	14,306
Arkansas	5,300	2,932	8,232
Alabama	10,400	6,675	17,095
Florida	3,591	3,638	7,229
Louisiana	6,700	16,816	23,516
Texas	24,000	9,363	22,363
<u>Tennessee</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>12,000</u>	<u>12,000</u>
Totals	95,904	83,079	178,983

Source: House Executive Document No.1, 39th Congress, 1st session (1866).

It is unclear why Army officials did not consider stationing colored volunteers in the North, even though there were garrisons and duties to be performed there also. Colored troop duties in the South were the same as the white regiments: maintain order, protect the rights of freedmen, and protect property. Many southerners were outraged that

federal troops, especially negro troops, were patrolling their states. Southern legislators viewed the troops as an occupation force.³⁷ The troops were accorded little authority because many southerners resented their presence. Violent clashes between colored troops and ex-confederate gangs were not uncommon.³⁸

During the fall of 1865, five months following the Civil War's end in April 1865, the army decided to relocate all the colored volunteer regiments away from inland southern states.³⁹ In a letter to Major General G. H. Thomas, Commanding General of the Division of Tennessee, General Grant vocalized his concern over the safety of U.S. Volunteers:

It is our duty...to protect troops acting under military authority and also all loyally disposed persons in the Southern States. In the spirit of these instructions then you will withdraw the colored troops from the interior of the country....The dispatch sent you indicates danger to colored troops if they are allowed to remain where they are. It is your duty to see that no conflict shall be brought on by the acts of the government forces or government agents. But if conflict does come the troops must be strong enough to resist opposition.⁴⁰

War Department General Order 144 prompted the restationing of all colored volunteer units to outlying, remote seacoast fortifications and towns. Volunteer units were spread along the southern coast and the western frontier. An example can be found in a roster (Table 3) of the Department of the Gulf, February 1865.

TABLE 3
POSTS MANNED BY USCT

<u>STATE</u>	<u>USCT Regiment</u>
<u>Louisiana</u>	
Brashear City	93rd, 98th
Bonnet Carre	80th
Lakeport	77th
Morganzia	73, 67, 75th, 84th, 92nd
Port Hudson	76th, 78th, 81st, 4th
Cavalry	
New Orleans	10th, 11th
<u>Mississippi</u>	
Ship Island	74th
<u>Florida</u>	
Barrancas	25th, 96th, 97th
Key West	2nd
Dry Tortugas	99th
<u>Alabama</u>	
Mobile Bay	20th, 96th, 97th

Source: Report to the Secretary of War from the Department of the Gulf, February 23, 1865.

The initial decision to relocate colored volunteer units away from major populated areas is interesting in light of two points. First, it in effect moved black soldiers away from major population centers and therefore out of the mind of mainstream America. This was probably preferable in the South. The sight of uniformed, armed negroes with authority angered many ex-Confederates and provided easy targets for gangs. Secondly, it was the beginning of a trend which would shape the policy for stationing black regular Army regiments from the Indian Wars (1890) and up to and including the Spanish-American War

(1898). These outposts were places where few soldiers cared to serve and were difficult on any man--black or white.⁴¹

By May 1866, Grant had tired from the pressure from white volunteers and the Congressional delay in the development of an Army reorganization plan. In a letter to Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton, Grant pressed Congress to form a peacetime army and for the first time acknowledged the dedication of the colored volunteers during reconstruction. He stated the army had been "compelled to retain volunteers" to maintain order.⁴² He further noted that white volunteers had felt betrayed by the army since their contracts only called for service during the war. Grant wanted to immediately release these white volunteers because they were no longer useful. He further stated, "The Colored volunteer has equal right to claim his discharge, but as yet he has not done so. How long will existing laws authorize the retention of this force, even if they are content to remain?"⁴³

Not only was the Army rapidly de-mobilizing, but settlers began to move to the western frontiers in larger numbers. The western migration was in full swing. Americans headed west in search of California gold and realization of Manifest Destiny. As settlers headed west, they looked at the Native Americans (Kiwias, Apaches, and Comanches) as being hostile and standing in thier way. The Army was tasked with providing protection along the Sante Fe

and Oregon trails and patrolling the still volatile Mexican border. Grant's pressure upon Congress to quickly address the problems faced by the army hastened the passing of the Reorganization Act of 1866.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is divided into four categories. General literature comprises the first category. The second category includes significant works which cover the American Revolution through the Civil War. The third and final category constitutes those references which cover Reconstruction and the American frontier west. References not included in the literature review can be found in the bibliography.

General Reference Literature

This category includes general literature on American history, African-American history, and the history of the United States Army from the American Revolution through the twentieth century. The references were central in developing a framework and baseline overview of the thesis.

Robert Leckie has written several excellent works on U.S. Army history; his The Wars of America provided excellent background material on pre- and post-war policies.

Against All Enemies (1986), edited by Kenneth Hagan and William R. Roberts provided unique insights into U.S.

Army history and those societal forces that shaped its development.

Russell Weighley's The American Way of War (1973) and History of the United States Army (1967) provided a broad description of U.S. Military development, focusing particularly on those events and strategies that shaped U.S. military doctrine and policy.

Another excellent narrative background source was Theodore Rodenbough's The Army of the United States (1896). This book is particularly useful because it provided early regimental histories.

Gary A. Donaldson's The History of African-Americans in the Military (1991) was by far the most concise, abbreviated secondary source on the African-American military experience in America. The brief outline is supported by outstanding references and were invaluable.

Similarly, The Historical and Cultural Atlas of African-Americans (1992) illustrated the societal development of African-Americans from slavery to 1990. It was particularly useful in describing the roles the frontier army played in the westward migration of African-Americans.

American Revolution to Civil War

Very few books cover African-American participation in the Revolutionary War and War of 1812. There are, however, a few, such as James Bulluck's Black Patriots of the American Revolution (1986) and Joseph Thomas Wilson's The Black Phalanx. Bulluck's Phalanx provided detailed descriptions of personal experiences and superb references.

Other excellent sources are Dudley T. Cornish's The Sable Arm (1966) and Joe H. May's published dissertation "Black Americans and their Contributions Toward Union victory in the American Civil War, 1861-1865" (1983).

Now is Your Time (1991), by Walter Dean Myers, compiles many original documents and first hand accounts on the famous Fifty-fourth Massachusetts volunteer regiment, as does, Thomas W. Higginson's first hand account of Army Life in a Black Regiment (1962).

Reconstruction and the Frontier West

There is very little secondary source information available on U.S. Army Infantry Regiments, Black or White, during reconstruction and the Frontier period. This is probably due to the monotonous life style associated with the infantry in the west. Most available literature highlights the glamorous exploits of the frontier White calvary regiments. There are, however, a few books which address the exploits of the brave infantry soldiers. Two

books have been written on the Twenty-fourth Infantry regiment: The Twenty-fourth Infantry Regiment, Past and Present (1972) and L. Albert Scipio II's Last of the Black Regulars. Although both contain official regimental history, neither provide significant data on the regiments early history or duty on the Texas plains. Robert Utley's, Frontier Regulars (1973) and Arlen Fowler's The Black Infantry in the West (1971) are good secondary sources that illustrate the typical daily activities of frontier units. William Katz's The Black West is another good source for background information African-American Experiences in the West.

The best secondary sources available on the black infantry regiments are unpublished dissertations. Tom Phillips' "The Black Regulars: Negro Soldiers In The United States Army, 1866-1891" (University of Wisconsin, 1970) describes the social, political, and recruiting difficulties experienced by the first black regular units. William Lee Richter's "The Army In Texas During Reconstruction, 1865-1870" (Louisiana State University, 1971) also provides good background information which lead to the deployment of troops in Texas. Other sources, such as "The Most Promising Young Officer" (1993) by Michael D. Pierce and Robert Wooster's "Soldiers, Sutlers and Settlers" (1987), paint a vivid picture of frontier army life in Texas.

Several periodicals were instrumental in filling the void of information on the daily lifestyles of black regulars on the frontier. Erwin N. Thompson's "The Negro Soldiers on the Frontier; A Fort Davis Case Study" published in the Journal of the West (1968) and Don Rickey's "Negro Regulars in the American Army, An Indian Wars Combat Record" found in the U.S. Army Military History Research Collection (1967) were very useful.

Official government documents, letters, and correspondence were used as primary sources. Regimental returns, and official correspondence were contained in Record Group 391. This group included letters sent, received, endorsements, and descriptive books for the Thirty-eight, Forty-first, and Twenty-fourth Infantry regiments. Record Groups 94 (Office of the Adjutant General) and 107 (Office of the Secretary of War) were also used. Annual Reports of the Secretary of War and the Congressional Globe were also used. A very useful and worthwhile primary source was Blacks in the Military, Essential Documents (1975) edited by Bernard C. Nalty and Morris J. MacGregor.

Several semi-official periodicals, such as the Army and Navy Journal and the Journal of Military History, provided some primary source information.

Research Methodology

This document uses the historical research method. This researcher found it necessary to first evaluate the social, political and military environment of the period. As the writer James Cantano states; "Research is...the attempt to take external events and data and, by passing them through the sensibilities of the writer, to produce a text that reflects both the outer and the inner worlds of meaning."⁴⁴ I used secondary sources extensively to develop a general understanding of the U.S. Army history and American history of the period. Books, periodicals, and scholarly studies were used. Most of the military sources were readily available at the Combined Arms Research Library and the Ft. Leavenworth Post libraries. Both libraries hold extensive titles in text and microfilm format pertaining to military history. The Fort Leavenworth Museum library held a few out of print secondary sources which were invaluable. Local civilian libraries, such as the University of Kansas library and the Johnson County Kansas Public Library, filled any remaining gaps.

Secondary source material was used to identify primary source documents. Most official government document primary source information was found at the National Archives in Washington, D.C. A visit to the National Archives in Washington D.C. was necessary and reaped the biggest rewards. Most documentation on the regiment's

formation was found here in Record Group 391. Reviewing documents in this group were difficult since most source data is recorded in nineteenth century handwritten script.

Primary source material gathered was verified against other source data, to include manuscripts, correspondence, official documents, and historical records. Surprisingly, some of the most revealing information on the regiments were discovered in various periodicals.

Unfortunately, due to the limited time constraints of this research, I discovered several unique state historical organizations which have compiled a numerous amount of unpublished data on the subject. The states of Texas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Louisiana each support Frontier army research.

CHAPTER THREE
THE FORMATION OF THE BLACK REGULAR REGIMENTS

Reorganization Act of 1866

The Reorganization Act of 1866 established the first peacetime Army to include African-American soldiers in its complement. For the first time in America's history black men received the opportunity to serve their country as a career soldier in the U.S. Army. Manpower shortages and the ready availability of colored volunteer regiments encouraged the move to consider black troops for the regular army. Senator Henry Wilson of Massachusetts introduced Senate bill 401 on the 10th day of January, 1865. The bill requested the establishment of a peacetime army consisting of ten regiments of cavalry, sixty of infantry, and seven of artillery.⁴⁵ The bill also called for two of the cavalry regiments, one artillery and ten infantry units to be comprised of negro soldiers. The bill immediately drew opposition in Congress and within the Army. Senator Willard Saulsbury of Delaware was adamantly opposed to giving jobs to negroes, suggesting that there were thousands of "unemployed white men who would jump at the chance to serve in the military."⁴⁶ He also argued that garrisoning of negro soldiers in the South would incite "violence and

bloodshed."⁴⁷ Senator Saulsbury was sensitive to southern views concerning the presence of negro soldiers. He claimed the presence of negro soldiers would be a "stench in the nostrils of the people."⁴⁸ He also suggested that "a negro soldier riding up and down the streets . . . dressed in a little brief authority [would] insult white men."⁴⁹ He challenged those senators who were anxious to have negroes in the Army to take them among themselves and provide the bill that they shall be stationed in their section of the country, of which he would approve. Senator Saulsbury was not alone in his objection. Senator James McDougall of California felt blacks in positions of authority an unthinkable proposition. On the amendment, he commented, "Soldiers are men of arms . . . and they must belong to the ruling forces, and shouldn't belong to the inferior forces [races]."⁵⁰ He further stated "these are simple rules that all men who have read history should have learned."⁵¹

Opinion varied throughout the Army as to whether blacks should be allowed to enlist in the regular army. As a regular publication, The Army and Navy Journal served as a voice for many officers. Black soldiers were described as gallant, disciplined and "excellent material for the Regular Army."⁵² General Grant observed that "negro troops [were] surpassed by no soldiers in the world, and equalled by few."⁵³ Many officers, even those who believed that there should be negro regiments, wanted to keep them separate from

the regular Army, especially during peacetime. In 1865, General Grant wrote to Stanton suggesting the colored volunteers should remain in service until they "were no longer needed."⁵⁴ Later, in response to Senator Wilson's proposal for negro troops, Grant wrote him to express his disaffection with "the permanent use of colored troops."⁵⁵ Numerous letters from officers in the Army and Navy Journal indicate a discomfort with the idea of regular negro regiments in the Army. The researcher was unable to discover documented opinions of black or white enlisted soldiers on Senate bill 401. However, Private Miles O'Reilly, a humorist writer, poet, and former soldier during the Civil War, authored a camp song. Its popularity indicated its influence upon the white enlisted soldier. Published in a prominent military journal, it reflected the opinion that blacks should be allowed to fight and die in place of and to preserve the lives of white soldiers;

Sambo's Right To Be Kilt

Some tell us 'tis a burnin shame
To make the naygers fight
And that the thrade of bein kilt
Belongs but to the white
But as for me, upon my soul
So liberal are we here
I'll let Sambo be murdered instead of myself
On every day of the year

The men who object to Sambo
Should take his place and fight
And it's better to have a nayer's hue
Than a liver that's wake and white.
Though Sambo's black as the ace of spades
His finger a trigger can pull
And his eye runs straight on the barrels sights
So here me all, boys darlin'
Don't think I'm tippin you chaff
The right to be kilt we'll divide wid him
And give him the largest half!⁵⁶

Not all of the senators were against the proposal. Senator Benjamin Wade of Ohio, following Saulsbury's comments, moved to increase the proposed negro cavalry regiments to four. His reasoning was not based on flattery or insult of negro troops. Senator Wade expressed more practical concerns. He argued that colored soldiers were "easier to be got [recruit]: they remain on hand better [it was commonly believed colored volunteers had a lower desertion rate than white soldiers] and therefore we should increase the proportion to one third."⁵⁷ Senator Lane of Indiana disagreed with Saulsbury's statement that there were thousands of white men willing to serve in the army. He pointed out the following facts. At the beginning of the Civil War, congress had authorized eleven regiments to the army but after five years of warfare "n t one single battalion or regiment has been filled."⁵⁸ Lane further addressed the criteria by which colored troops should be used as soldiers. He reminded his fellow senators that the objection to the use of colored troops was aired prior to the war. "It was not right to employ them in time of war"

he recalled the argument made at that time, "because gentlemen opposed that and said there was a sufficiency of white troops for the suppression of the rebellion."⁵⁹ Thus Senator Lane made the point that the House of Congress had misjudged the situation. White troops did not flock to enlist for the privilege of putting down the southern insurrection.

In spite of these opposing opinions, some stating the negro was not superior enough to serve, others stating he was inferior enough to die, the issue had to be decided. The need to establish a peacetime army was critical.

The recorded performance of the colored frontier cavalry regiments was the most instrumental factor in winning the vote to establish permanent black Army regiments. U.S. Colored Troops cavalry regiments superior performance along the western frontier was well documented. In addition, desertion rates of colored cavalry volunteers in Kentucky were thirty to forty percent lower than their white counterparts.⁶⁰ Desertion rates were of great concern. The enlisted soldier faced years of living without comfort and with little pay. Most white deserters left in search of gold or to avoid the harsh rugged lifestyle of the west. The black volunteers had few employment options outside of the military. Within the military, blacks acquired a measure of authority and respect and were less likely to desert. Unfortunately, some myths were involved

in the final decision-making process. One commonly held myth among Washington politicians was that blacks preferred hot climates and physiologically had a higher resistance to diseases.⁶¹ The same myth influenced the decision to enslave Africans for labor on southern plantations. This was later disproved during 1866 and 1867 when several black regiments were stricken by Cholera and yellow fever. Of all the speeches for and against the resolution, the most influential argument was probably the following summation by Senator Wilson;

I think it is a great matter of economy to put some of these colored [cavalry] regiments into the field in the Indian country, in the mountains, and in sections of the country where white men desert largely and go to the mines where the temperature is very great.⁶²

The Army Reorganization Act of July 28, 1866, was passed on the last day of the first session of the Thirty-ninth Congress. The Act established a peacetime army of five regiments of artillery, ten regiments of cavalry, and forty-five regiments of infantry.⁶³ Four infantry regiments and two cavalry regiments were to be made of negro soldiers. For the first time black soldiers would serve in the regular Army and would not be identified as a part of the United States Colored Troops. The Act also provided each Black regiment with a chaplain whose responsibility would be educational and spiritual instruction. It further allowed that a proportion of vacancies in the commissioned

ranks in the new regiments be filled by officers who served with distinction in the United States Colored Troops.⁶⁴

On November 23, 1866, General Order Number 92 stipulated that the "four regiments of Infantry to be composed of colored men will be the 38th, 39th, 40th and 41st Regiments of Infantry."⁶⁵ The regiments were to be formed as much as possible with the volunteers still in service. On October 20, 1866, the number of volunteers was approximately 12,500.⁶⁶ The Thirty-eighth Infantry Regiment began recruiting at Jefferson Barracks, Missouri, on September 1, 1866, and the Forty-first Infantry Regiment started November 10, 1866, in New Orleans, Louisiana.⁶⁷ The saber had been passed from Crispus Attucks and the stage was set for profound events to occur along the Staked Plains.

Deployment

The Reorganization Act established a peacetime army. The duties were vast but the army was still undermanned. The bill authorized a total strength of 54,304 men. However, from 1866 to 1891 the entire strength of the Army was approximately 25,000 men.⁶⁸ In 1874, General Philip H. Sheridan found himself responsible for the enormous task of defending a 1,000,000 square mile frontier containing over 99 Indian tribes with only 17,819 men.⁶⁹ The tasks of the new army were overwhelming. The most critical task was the

immediate disbandment of volunteers who were vacating posts at an alarming rate. By November of 1866, 1,023,021 volunteers had to be mustered out. Regular army troops were immediately required to man outposts in the west and garrisons in the south.

Washington established new military divisions with sub-departments to administer the vast western frontier. Both the Division of the Missouri, headquartered in St Louis, and the Division of the Pacific, having San Francisco as its headquarters were subdivided into departments to aide in their administration. Major General William Sherman commanded the Division of Missouri, dividing it into sub-departments of Missouri, Platte, and Dakota. It was under the Department of Missouri in the Staked Plains of Texas and along the Rio Grande River that the new black regiments would serve until the Spanish-American War.

Recruiting for the black regular regiments began immediately. Numerous forts, outposts, and garrisons required manning. The new army first began to man garrisons in the reconstruction South. All regular Army recruits received their indoctrination and training in three locations, David's Island, New York; and Columbus Barracks, Ohio; or Jefferson Barracks, Missouri.⁷⁰ The black infantry regiments were headquartered in the South with the exception of the Thirty-eighth. This decision coincided

with the pressing need to relieve volunteers of reconstruction duties in the South.

The Thirty-ninth was commanded by Colonel Joseph A Mower, a Civil War corps commander and personal friend of General Sherman. Mower began recruiting men for the Thirty-ninth regiment August 22, 1866, in Greenville, Louisiana. The Fortieth infantry regiment was first organized September 5, 1866, in Washington, D.C., by Colonel Nelson Miles. Miles was a veteran of Fredricksburg, Antietam, and Chancellorsville. He later moved his headquarters to Camp Distribution, Virginia, in November 1866.⁷¹ A delay in officer assignments prevented the establishment of the Forty-first infantry regiment until November 10, 1866, in Baton Rouge, Louisiana.⁷² Colonel Randell S. McKenzie took command of the regiment in New Orleans. The Thirty-eighth infantry was led by Colonel William B. Hazen. Hazen was a veteran Indian fighter and Civil War corps commander. He began recruiting September 1, 1866 at Jefferson Barracks, Missouri.

A concerted effort was made to recruit former U.S.C.T. volunteers to fill out the new black regiments. There were several reasons for this policy. Civil War experience in USCT regiments had demonstrated the difficulty in recruiting educated negroes. Much of the daily tasks involving administrative work and training would have to be conducted by the officers and NCOs because many recruits

were illiterate and unskilled.⁷³ It was imperative, therefore, that the regiments attempt to recruit as many blacks as possible with military experience and skills from the volunteer units. These experienced volunteers served as excellent examples and role models for newly freed slaves who had no experience with military discipline and regiment. To ensure the recruitment of quality candidates, regimental officers were detailed away from their garrisons to recruit on a routine basis. Colonel McKenzie, commander of the Forty-first kept strict controls over recruiting in his regiment.⁷⁴

Recruiting presented its own difficulties. Certain regions of the country seemed to produce higher quality candidates than others. Recruiting was not aggressively pursued in the states of Alabama, Georgia, and Mississippi. It was believed the former field slaves from these states had little discipline and self-esteem.⁷⁵ Northern cities, Louisiana, and midwestern states were preferred areas for recruitment. Many of the Thirty-eighth Infantry Regiment were selected from the 128th U.S.C.T. Recruitment difficulty was also compounded by the common practice of using former U.S.C.T. officers to aide in regular recruiting. Due to their experience in locating prime candidates, a few of these officers would attempt to barter recruits in exchange for commissions in the regular army.

Since such an exchange was illegal, some would discourage volunteers from enlisting.

Recruiting for both the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first went slowly. As the new year approached the picture was bleak. The Thirty-eighth reported recruiting only 27 men by December 1866. Colonel Grover, a recruiting officer, in a report to the Department of Missouri stated, "eighty-four recruits at this post, Jefferson Barracks, not one can read and write well enough to perform clerical duties or who is sufficiently educated to fill the position of sergeant."⁷⁶ Then during the winter of 1867, the Forty-first benefitted from a sudden crop failure in Louisiana. A large number of recruits were gained in the area of New Orleans.⁷⁷ Both regiments concentrated heavily on recruiting in 1867. By December of 1867, both units were able to successfully enlarge their rolls to at least 400 troops.

Reconstruction Duty

The enforcement of Reconstruction Acts became the primary responsibility of regular troops deployed in the South. Major General Philip H. Sheridan, commander of the Division of the Gulf, was responsible for enforcing the Reconstruction Acts in the states of Florida, Texas, and Louisiana. His area of responsibility also included the ongoing Indian clashes along the western border of Texas and Mexico. New Orleans, Sheridan's headquarters, also lay at

the center of Reconstruction social unrest. In the summer of 1866, tensions mounted over a new constitutional convention which would grant blacks suffrage for the first time in New Orleans. On July 30th, thirty-eight civilians were killed in a mass riot between black protesters and white radicals.⁷⁸ Sheridan immediately took civil measures to control the lawlessness and revamp the local government. Two of the newly formed black regiments garrisoned in the New Orleans area provided troops in support of Sheridan's changes. The Twentieth, First, and the Thirty-ninth reinforced Jackson Barracks on numerous occasions during the summer of 1867. Soldiers of the Thirty-ninth were participants in a little known protest which resulted in General Sheridan mandating the desegregation of public street cars nicknamed "star cars."⁷⁹

The Forty-first began recruiting in the city of Baton Rouge. The regiment began with nine officers, eight of which had served with the Thirty-ninth U.S. Infantry. Service in the Bayou was fairly uneventful for the regiment. Recruiting was the primary focus for the first year, a duty which fell upon the junior officers in the regiment. Six out of a total of ten assigned officers were detached from Baton Rouge on recruiting duty.⁸⁰ This affected training, drilling and readiness. The decision to use officers for recruiting in both the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first was a

practical one. Recruitment of the most educated negroes continued to be a priority.⁸¹

The Western Frontier

The Thirty-eighth Infantry began much as the Forty-first. Headquartered at Jefferson Barracks, the first six months were devoted to recruiting. U.S. Army duties in the western frontiers of Missouri and Kansas would not revolve around enforcement of reconstruction, but rather Indian fighting. Numerous Indian tribes resided in the greater Kansas, Oklahoma, and Colorado frontiers. In August 1866, the Department of the Missouri consisted of four cavalry regiments (Third, Fifth, Seventh, and Tenth), three infantry regiments (Fifth, Thirty-seventh, and Thirty-eighth) and 150 Indian scouts.⁸²

Clashes were frequent with Comanche, Kiowa, and Cheyenne, and Arapaho bands, particularly along the wagon train routes leading to Denver and points south along the Arkansas River and Sante Fe trails. The few roads leading west were heavily traveled and easy targets for scouting Indian warriors. From February to September 1867, 124 wagon trains, 4,587 men, 56 women and 587 children, passed through Kansas to Fort Sedgwick, Colorado.⁸³ To provide protection for these settlers, a string of forts dotted the strategic lines of communication west into Colorado and south into New Mexico, culminating at the Rio Grande River.

The severe shortage of frontier army manpower limited an even distribution of troops along the trails. Infantry and cavalry regiments would frequently organize into companies at various forts to spread the resources. During the summer of 1867, General Sheridan estimated the frontier Indians could deploy approximately "6,000 well-mounted and well armed warriors, with from two to ten spare horses each" whereas the department of Missouri could only muster about "1,200 cavalry and 1,400 infantry to counter the threat."⁸⁴

The first mission of the Thirt-eighth regiment was to provide escorts for wagon trains and the Kansas Pacific Railroad as far as Fort Hays on the Smokey Hill route.⁸⁵ Companies A and B were the first to deploy from Jefferson Barracks, They travelled by rail to Ft Harker, Kansas. Company K followed on June 9th, 1867 and on June 26th became the first to engage the Indians in battle. Under the command of Corporal David Turner, Company K repulsed an attack at Wilson's Creek, Kansas, killing five Indians.⁸⁶ "Hazen's Brunettes," as the Thirty-eighth was sometimes labeled, became the first of the new black infantry regiments to see combat.⁸⁷ Unfortunately for the Thirty-eighth regiment, this historic deployment to Ft. Harker was overshadowed by the first signs of a cholera epidemic among Kansas military posts.

Asiatic Cholera and yellow fever were rampant in the United States in 1866. Cholera had appeared first in 1849

when hundreds of settlers heading west during the early years of the gold rush were struck by the disease. Army physicians estimated the epidemic of 1866 was conveyed into America by way of New York City. Recruits entering recruiting depots at Governor's Island, New York, and Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania, infected these posts first.

The epidemic later spread to other military posts west by steamships full of recruits bound for New Orleans and the Texas coast cities of Galveston or Port Isabel. Over 1,800 citizens and 173 troops died of the disease in the summer of 1866 which was suspected to have been delivered by the recruit steamship Mariposa. Galveston and Brownsville, Texas, suffered fewer deaths, totalling 37 and 57 deaths, respectively. The small populations along the Texas frontier cities probably accounted for the smaller number of fatalities. The disease quickly spread up the Mississippi River with the recruits, infecting Baton Rouge, Newport Barracks, Kentucky, Little Rock, Arkansas, Illinois, and finally Jefferson Barracks, St. Louis.

The cholera epidemic of 1866 was devastating for the already small frontier army. The Army Surgeon General, Brevet Lieutenant Colonel J.J. Woodward reported "2,813 cases and 1,269 deaths in 1866."⁸⁸

Cholera reappeared on army posts shortly after the arrival of Companies D, F, and H at Ft. Harker 25 June 1867. Although it was never concluded that the Thirty-eighth

brought the disease with them from Jefferson Barracks, the regiments subsequent visits were followed by the appearance of the disease. Cases of Cholera were already reported in St Louis and Newport Barracks, Kentucky, in late June 1867.⁸⁹ Some physicians speculate the disease may have been picked up by the regiment from an infected civilian beef employee who probably communicated with the regiments' camp at Ft Harker.⁹⁰ Sanitation practices at many of the outlying western forts were poor.

Fort Harker was a new outpost constructed in 1867 by infantry and cavalry regiments as they passed through (this was common practice during the frontier days due to limited Army manpower). Symptoms of cholera were rapid dehydration, diarrhea and abdominal pain, followed by death if untreated. The Thirty-eighth regiment suffered severe losses from the disease. By December 1867 it lost 65 men to the pestilence.⁹¹

In spite of the epidemic, the Thirtieth-eighth manned posts along the Sante Fe Trail during the months of June and July before it was ordered south to man forts in New Mexico. The Thirty-eighth, as many of the black regular regiments, were unaffectionally nick-named "Brunettes" by some white soldiers because they perceived the black soldiers skin favored the color brunette.⁹² "Hazen's Brunettes" continued to provide excellent escort service and duties along the trails while combatting the deadly disease. One

such example of their bravery was recorded by General George Armstrong Custer's wife, in the defense of Fort Wallace, Kansas against a Cheyenne attack led by the famous Chief Roman Nose;

The post had been so short of men that a dozen negro soldiers, who had come with their wagon from an outpost for supplies, were placed near the garrison on picket duty. While the fight was going on, the officers in command found themselves near each other on the skirmish-line, and observed a wagon with four mules tearing out of the line of battle. It was filled with negroes, standing up, all firing in the direction of the Indians. The driver lashed the mules with his black snake, and roared at them as they ran. When the skirmish-line was reached, the colored men leaped out and began firing again. No one had ordered them to leave their picket-station, but they were determined that no soldiering should be carried on in which their valor was not proved.⁹³

After successfully accomplishing their duties along the Santa Fe and Kansas Pacific Railroad, the men of the Thirty-eighth marched south along the Arkansas and Rio Grande Rivers. It is significant to note these black regimental soldiers forced marched for the entire distance of twelve hundred miles. Railroads had not been established in this part of the southwest. The climate was extremely brutal, forcing men and pack animals to conquer the intense heat and barren sands of the Staked Plains. Some infantry companies were mounted, but most crossed the plains on foot, preferring their pack mules and horses be led by hand to preserve their energy.

In some ways, infantry units were more mobile than their fellow glamorous cavalry regiments. Movement by foot

enabled infantry men to carry the longer and more effective Allin converted Springfield rifle. The Allin Springfield was too heavy to be carried by the cavalry, but had a longer range and carried 15 more grains of powder than the cavalry issued Springfield carbine.⁹⁴ Horses became a drawback for cavalry units on long marches in the vacillating terrain of the Southwest. Horses required feed and large reservoirs of water, both of which extended supply trains, severely limiting the mobility of the cavalry over the long haul. Infantry units needed only to supply its efficient mules and soldiers.

Military outposts along the Sante Fe trails, such as Forts Lyon, Union, and Elliot served as respites for the regiment as it deployed south to New Mexico. LTC Hazen moved his regimental headquarters to Ft Craig, New Mexico September 24, 1867.⁹⁵ The regiment entered into what was considered extremely dangerous Indian territory. Comanche and Kiowa scouting raids were common place along the southern plains. Despite this heavy activity, most of the chores performed by the Thirty-eighth were routine.

Escort services for westward settlers were always needed. The greatest use of manpower was relegated to rebuilding previously abandoned forts, through the Spring of 1867. Since infantry units did not have the mobility of the cavalry to pursue the mounted Indian warriors, much of their time was spent building guardhouses and laying telegraph

wires across the plains. "Hazen's Brunettes" did conduct routine scouting expeditions. One expedition resulted in an attack against an Apache Indian camp in the Hatcher mountains of New Mexico, August 27, 1868. A detachment of the regiment led by Brevet Major Alex Moore killed three Indians and captured a large amount of property and animals.⁹⁶

The regiment spent the next two years manning and rebuilding Forts Craig, McCrae, Selden, Bliss, Bayard and Cummings before redeploying to Fort McKavett in 1869. The men of the Thirty-eighth Infantry in its short period of existence demonstrated bravery, loyalty and a commitment to completing their duties in the face of disease, warfare and hardship.

Forty First Deploys West

The Forty-first regiment received orders to deploy west and man posts along the Rio Grande, in June, 1867. Lieutenant Colonel Ranald Slidell McKenzie assumed command of the Forty-first in Baton Rouge and immediately took actions to ensure he recruited the best soldiers for the regiment. Hand picked for the job by General Sheridan, McKenzie was once called "the most promising young officer in the army" by General Grant.⁹⁷ Problems along the border of Texas prompted General Sheridan to reinforce the western territories of the Texas frontier. Texas had become a two-fold problem for the army. It encompassed an enormous area,

Texas citizens, particularly ex-confederates, were unwilling to fully accept the Reconstruction Acts. Armed secret organizations roamed the state terrorizing newly freed slaves and freedmen. General J.J. Reynolds, commander of the Fifth military district, noted this activity in a report to the Secretary of War in 1868. In his report, he stated "[these organizations] disarm, rob, and in many cases murder Union men and negroes, and as occasion may offer, murder United States officers and soldiers."⁹⁸ He went on to say that "free speech and free press, as the terms are generally understood in other states, have never existed in Texas."⁹⁹ General Sheridan was never hesitant to use federal troops to enforce Reconstruction Acts in New Orleans. These roving bands however complicated efforts by alienating soldiers from Texas citizens.

In addition to the wide Texas frontier area was the dilemma of the disputed Mexican border. The border made protection from Indian attacks difficult. Comanche and Kiowa scouting parties would frequently raid towns, then escape across the Mexican border, daring federal troops to pursue them. In an effort to solve these mounting problems, regular troops were sent to western Texas to reoccupy a defensive line of forts. These forts were established during the 1840s to protect the westward expanding Texas population.¹⁰⁰ The defensive system consisted of two belts, which, in the words of the General Reynolds, would

"extend from the Red River to the Rio Grande, from Ringgold Barracks to Fort Bliss, about eight hundred sixteen miles."¹⁰¹ The responsibility of rebuilding these forts fell upon the regular army regiments who manned them on an infrequent basis.

The Forty-first departed Baton Rouge June 22, 1867 aboard the transport ship "Agnes" enroute to Port Isabel, Texas.¹⁰² Transport to Texas by ship was not uncommon. Ship transport was the most economical means of moving large regiments great distances. The geography of Texas precluded rapid transportation across land routes. Rail transportation was not available until 1881 and wagon trains were limited to one or two trails.¹⁰³ Transport by ship was economical for the army, but troops dreaded traveling by steamship for good reasons. Rarely would these ships have adequate berthing facilities for the troops. Food was typically bad and at a premium during the voyage. Sea sickness, fires and unsanitary conditions contributed to the uncomfortable journey.¹⁰⁴ Many soldiers feared the possibility of contracting a deadly disease such as Cholera or yellow fever in the confined spaces below decks.

The "Agnes" transported the Forty-first regiment to Galveston, Texas where they transferred to the steamer "Saint Mary" which completed the voyage to Brazos Santiago June 29th, 1867. Another steamer took the regiment up the Rio Grande to Brownsville, Texas, where they

disembarked.¹⁰⁵ Upon arrival in Brownsville the regiment set up camp and immediately made preparations to march north to occupy Ringgold Barracks, Fort McIntosh and Port Isabel. Lt Col McKenzie had established himself as a disciplined, honorable officer, and the Forty-first reflected this leadership.

The presence of infantry regiments along the Rio Grande did little to avert the Indian raids. Infantry skirmishing tactics were not effective against the quick and mobile mounted Indian warriors. Occasionally cavalry regiments would be augmented with infantry companies on a scouting expedition in search of Indian camps. This tactic provided little improvement in the cavalry's ability to find the mobile Indian settlements. Surprisingly, however, the army garrisoned more infantry regiments in the District of Texas than cavalry in 1868.¹⁰⁶ In 1867 the overall army shortage of funds played a major role in determining the movement of regiments.

The Forty-first performed all of the monotonous and routine chores infantry units on the frontier experienced. It was necessary to build roads and guard supply trains. Again the rebuilding of old forts proved to be the most demanding task for frontier infantry. However, the Texas frontier provided unique challenges. Frequently the only materials available for making huts were limestone, sand and an occasional cord of wood. Forts along the Rio Grande

were usually large areas of land with small adobe structures projecting from the earth which served as barracks. Most were open to the strong plains winds and occasionally flooded out during violent thunderstorms. Such a violent storm submerged the army post at Brazos Santiago, Texas October 4, 1867, killing four soldiers of Company 1 of the Forty-first.¹⁰⁷

The Forty-first performed their chores as well as their white infantry counterparts. On some occasions, they outperformed them. While garrisoned at Ft Concho, the post surgeon stated that the Forty-first regiment was "decidedly superior" in drill to their fellow white infantry troops garrisoned there.¹⁰⁸ Most black enlisted troops, as their white counterparts, socialized among themselves and frequented black areas in populated cities during their off duty hours. On occasion, racial disputes with civilians did occur. Brownsville was no stranger to negro troops. The Sixty-second and Eighty-seventh U.S.C.T. volunteer regiments were stationed at Brazos Santiago and Brownsville during the Civil War and had numerous encounters with the residents. As with their Black soldiers were frequent targets of justified and unjustified allegations of misconduct.¹⁰⁹

The headquarters of the regiment remained at Ringgold Barracks until March of 1868. Ringgold Barracks had been established in 1864 as part of the old western fort defense line along the Texas border. It was the largest and most

accommodating forts in the country. The regiment soon exchanged their comfortable quarters at Ringgold in late March 1868 for the deserted and open plains of west Texas, where they would serve until consolidated with the Twenty-fourth Infantry regiment at Fort McKavett. McKenzie's Forty-first served admirably along the western plains, earning a reputation for being one of the best frontier regiments in the army.¹¹⁰

CHAPTER FOUR

THE TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY REGIMENT

The new U.S. Army formed by the Reorganization Act of 1866 never reached its full manning. The end of the Civil War and American public desires for peace forced the army to cut back funding and reduce force manning in 1869.¹¹¹ The result was the Reorganization Act of 1869, which eliminated some regiments and combined others.

Reorganization Act of 1869

The Army Reorganization Act of 1869 significantly reduced the manpower of the frontier army. The bill reduced the number of cavalry units to five and reduced the number of infantry units from forty-five to twenty-five. The also bill provided for the continuance of the two black cavalry regiments--the Ninth and Tenth--and the consolidation of the four black infantry regiments into two black regiments--the Twenty-fourth and Twenty-fifth. It is significant to note there was little or no debate whether black soldiers should remain in the regular Army. Congressman Benjamin F. Butler of Massachusetts, suggesting he approved of the performance of the new regular black regiments, "declared that this reduction should not effect the six negro units already in

service."¹¹² Congressman Benjamin Boyer of Pennsylvania argued the proposed bill would "turn none but white men out of the army."¹¹³ In a short three year period the new black infantry and cavalry regiments demonstrated to the nation their loyalty and capability to meet and, in some cases, surpass U.S. Army requirements.

The bill had a tremendous effect on the frontier regulars. Collectively, the U.S. Army had never reached their authorized strength of 54,000 allowed in the Reorganization Act of 1866. By the summer of 1869 the army total strength had been reduced to 37,358:¹¹⁴

TABLE 4

U.S. ARMY MANPOWER - 1869

Combatant Units

Ten regiments of cavalry	9,892
Five regiments of artillery	4,300
Twenty-five regiments of infantry	<u>16,986</u>
Total troops of the line	31,178

Noncombatant Units

Five companies of engineer troops	560
Permanent recruiting parties and recruits	1,629
Enlisted men of ordnance	706
West Point detachment	82
Signal detachment	333
Ordnance sergeants	121

Officers (Combatant and Noncombatant)

Officers	<u>2,488</u>
Grand Total	37,358

Source: Report of the General of the Army, Secretary of War
Report to Congress, November 10, 1870.

The effects of the reduction were first evident in the frontier regiments. Force levels were reduced significantly in cavalry and infantry regiments to the point where the basic tactical unit fought at the company level. To add to the manning problems, routine absentees and detachments shrank regiments even further. General Sherman attempted to ease the losses by avoiding cuts in the combat

arms or "troops of the line" regiments. In his 1870 report to the Secretary of War, Sherman specifically addressed what he saw as impending problems in manning frontier units. He stated that "constant loss by death, discharge, desertion especially in the more remote and dangerous districts, will reduce the actual number present for duty to about two-thirds of the prescribed limit, or will bring the companies down to about 40 men, which is too small for efficient service."¹¹⁵

Reduction in force also meant increased duties for the limited regiments out west. The rebuilding of forts and posts had already taken its toll on the regular units in the Fifth Military District of Texas. Many soldiers became disenchanted with army life and deserted. General Reynolds frequently voiced his objections in using soldiers as builders and laborers "on public buildings, roads and other work which disqualifies them as soldiers, besides preventing them from scouting the frontier".¹¹⁶ Sherman agreed, commenting to the Secretary "soldiers must labor in taking care of themselves and of their necessary supplies, but to build permanent works or roads . . . is a kind of labor that ought not be imposed on our reduced establishment."¹¹⁷ The frontier units quickly reorganized, absorbing manpower reductions by deploying company sized detachments to garrison forts and posts.

U.S. Army General Orders Number 17, dated March 15, 1869, consolidated the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first infantry regiments into the Twenty-fourth. It also formed the Twenty-fifth infantry regiment by consolidating the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth regiments. Both Thirty-ninth and Fortieth were stationed in the south during the reconstruction, the Fortieth having served in North Carolina and the Thirty-ninth in New Orleans. The Fortieth transferred to New Orleans by train and formed the Twenty-fifth April 20, 1869 at Jackson Barracks under the command of Colonel Joseph A. Mower, commander of the Thirty-ninth Infantry.

TABLE 5

TWENTY-FIFTH INFANTRY REGIMENT APRIL 20, 1869

Company A - Fort Pike, La.
Company B - Fort Jackson, La.
Company C - Fort St, Philip, La.
Company D - Jackson Barracks, La.
Company E - Ship Island, Miss.
Company F - Ship Island, Miss.
Company G - Jackson Barracks, La.
Company H - Fort Jackson, La.
Company I - Ship Island, Miss.
Company J - Jackson Barracks, La.

Source: Nankivell, John N. History of the Twenty-fifth Regiment. United States Infantry, Denver, 1927.

Duty at Fort McKavett

The formation of the Twenty-fourth infantry proceeded immediately under the command of Colonel Randal McKenzie, commander of the Forty-first Infantry. Of the two newly

formed black infantry regiments, the Twenty-fourth benefitted most from the consolidation. The Thirty-eighth and Forty-first were two of the most experienced, highly trained and respected infantry regiments in the Army. Both regiments were led by energetic, highly disciplined commanders with military experience in the Civil and Indian Wars. Concurrently, both regiments brought with them combat experienced NCO's, a much sought after qualification in the negro regiments.

The regiments headquarters consolidated at the previously abandoned Fort McKavett. McKavett was originally constructed in 1852 at the head of the San Saba River. It served as was one of the many forts constructed to provide a defensive line from the Red to the Pecos Rivers against Indian incursions. The post was abandoned in 1859 and reoccupied by the Fourth cavalry in March of 1868.¹¹⁸

The manpower shortage along the frontier resulted in a "paper" consolidation of the two regiments. Both regiments were dispersed by companies at various forts. Companies of the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first consolidated by the most expedient means to form the new companies of the Twenty-fourth:

TABLE 6

CONSOLIDATION POSTS, TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY

<u>Location</u>	<u>41st</u>	<u>38th</u>	<u>24th</u>	<u>Date</u>
Ft. Stockton	A/G	-	G	Nov 12
Ft. Clark	C	C	C	Nov 17
Ft. Davis	E	D	B	Nov 31
Ft. Concho	F	F	F	Nov 14
Ft. Quitman	H	H	H	Nov 2
Ft. Duncan	K	K	K	Dec 8 ¹¹⁹

Both regiments' headquarters consolidated at Fort McKavett by the end of November, and the distribution of troops on December 12, 1869, was the following:

TABLE 7

COMPANY POSTS, TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY

Company	Location	Company	Location
A	Ft. Bliss	B	Ft. Davis
C	Ft. Clark	D	Ft. Griffir.
F	Ft. Concho	G	Ft. Stockton
H	Ft. Quitman	I	Ft. Richardson
K	Ft. Duncan	HQ	Ft. McKavett

Source: Regimental Returns, 24th Infantry, December, 1869.

Colonel McKenzie's foremost priority was recruitment. Although the two infantry regiments had gained much

experience on the plains, most of the soldiers' three year enlistment contracts were expiring, and many did not care to remain in the Army. The weathered soldiers of the Thirty-eighth had endured extremely harsh years, surviving a Cholera epidemic, long marches, bad food, poor shelter monotonous chores and loneliness.

Unlike their fellow black soldiers in the Fortieth and Thirty-ninth, stationed in the South, frontier black regiments served far from black civilian populations, which further exacerbated this isolation. Many of the highly qualified African-American soldiers were recruited from cities in the North and East. By 1870 jobs had become more available in those areas for blacks with a trade.¹²⁰

Colonel McKenzie placed special emphasis on accepting only the most qualified candidates for recruitment.¹²¹ He also demanded the best from his officers. In a letter to Adjutant General Edward Townsend, McKenzie urged that "it is much to its interest, that the officers who are detailed to recruit for these organizations [black regiments] are those who take interest in its efficiency."¹²²

The largest percentage of recruits were gained from Virginia, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Tennessee, Alabama, Kentucky, North Carolina, Mississippi, and Illinois. All were recruited through four locations, St. Louis, Nashville, Lexington, Kentucky, and Philadelphia. The average height

of a recruit was 5 feet 11 inches and twenty-one years of age.¹²³

Work on the rebuilding of Fort McKavett began in March 1869 when McKenzie and the first two regiments of the Forty-first arrived. The troops rebuilt horse corrals, barracks, guardhouses, renovated kitchens and the officer's quarters. The quality of the renovation was so superior that the Acting Assistant Surgeon General of the Army, Redford Sharpe, reported the following to the Surgeon General of the Army in 1869;

I have served at no post since I have been on duty in Texas, since December, 1865, where more attention is paid to cleanliness of quarters, and where all sanitary and hygienic rules are more thoroughly enforced, and where more deference is paid to the suggestions of the medical officer in regard to such rules. The sinks for both officers and enlisted . . . are disinfected every morning, are washed three times a week, and recently, during the warm weather, they are removed a mile distant, near the San Saba river, daily, washed and returned. There is no more healthy post on the Texas frontier than Fort McKavett.¹²⁴

During the first few years much of the duties performed by the regiment encompassed escorting wagon trains and mail, scouting and fort renovation. The strict discipline of the unit was a direct reflection of the strong leadership and moral fiber of the troops. When the regiment was not scouting or on escort duty, it was drilling. Civilian masons and carpenters were used as much as possible to free up the already limited number of troops at the fort to perform military duties.

Fort McKavett was situated far from any major civilian population. The nearest town, San Antonio, was 180 miles southeast of the fort. The distance from civilian concentrations was both beneficial and problematic for the Twenty-fourth. Although former regiments (Thirty-eighth and Forty-first) had become accustomed to frontier life, isolation frequently led to boredom. There was, however, one recorded incident involving the murder of three black soldiers of the Twenty-fourth.

A civilian farmer by the name of John "Humpy" Jackson operated a struggling farm near the fort before it was reactivated. He quickly took advantage of the reactivated fort and rapidly began to prosper, selling fresh food and opening a saw mill to provide lumber to the fort. Black soldiers were stationed near his farm at a saw mill which they helped to operate. One of the soldiers was attracted to Jackson's daughter Narcissus and wrote her a note stating his affections. Jackson was enraged by this and shot and killed the first black soldier he saw, which was the wrong man. Colonel MacKenzie felt that regardless of the unwritten rules of white southern society, Mr. Jackson had murdered a soldier of the U.S. Army and should be brought to justice. MacKenzie offered a reward for the arrest of Jackson and sent several detachments of men to arrest him.

Throughout his command at Fort McKavett, Mackenzie kept up the manhunt. Jackson was captured once by a detachment of troops, but was assisted in escape by friends who killed two more soldiers. Eventually one of Jackson's friends was killed by an Army patrol. After two years of being pursued, Jackson finally surrendered, but by then Mackenzie had left Fort McKavett to take command of the Fourth Cavalry. Jackson was indicted for murder, stood trial, but was acquitted by a jury which sympathized with him.¹²⁵

The regiment first two years were rather uneventful. The few clashes with Indians that did occur were small scouting expeditions with cavalry units garnered little reward. The first encounter with a major contingent of Indians occurred in June 30, 1871, when Company A was attacked by 40 Indians as they escorted a mule train enroute Fort McKavett.¹²⁶ Small clashes such as these became the rule for the regiment until the regiment transferred its headquarters to Fort McIntosh September 1873.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS

The events leading up to Twenty-fourth Infantry's formation is a lesson in early American history. It is a saga of men who volunteered to serve a country which would not grant them citizenship. Nevertheless, these brave soldiers continued to serve in war after war, some to prove their patriotism, some to provide for their families and many to gain their freedom. This research study chronicled the major events which led to the formation of the twenty-fourth and its first campaign as an regiment. It reveals interesting policies and attitudes which lead to the decision to officially include African-Americans among the roles of the those who served their country in uniform. Numerous Black militia units fought along integrated battle lines prior to and during the Revolutionary War.

Interestingly, the use of African-Americans as militiamen or soldiers was tolerated whenever the need outweighed the preconceived prejudices for their use. It was once said that necessity is the mother of invention. Ironically, for those African-Americans desiring the opportunity to wear the U.S. Army uniform, necessity became the "mother of opportunity."

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of the regiment's history was the willingness of these men to serve. Some joined for economic reasons, others to travel, then many to serve their country. Recruitment of soldiers from the Unites States Colored Troops provided a significant base force for the regiments. Each organization paved the way for the ultimate formation to of the Twenty-fourth. Years of dedicated, superior service, from militia units to USCT to regular army, formed the foundation for the passing of the Reorganizatiion Act of 1866.

Strong Army leadership cannot be discounted as a major factor in the regiment's formation. Sound, basic leadership qualities displayed by Colonel's Hazen and McKenzie made the transition easier for the regiments. Both cared deeply for the welfare of their men despite being ostracized by thier fellow officers for commanding black regiments.

The history of the Forty-first and Thirty-eighth Infantry are of special importance for several reasons. Very little has been written on these regiments, yet they had by far the hardest duties on the western frontier. Long road marches and isolation was the order of the day for the Thirty-eighth. The regiments spent much of their time building roads and rebuilding the forts of Western Texas, but yet they are frequently omitted in many history books, possibly because of thier short history or thier little

known deeds. It is possible to assume that many of these soldiers had stories to tell and families to come home too, but since many of the soldiers, black or white, could not read or write, their stories will remain a mystery.

Areas for Future Study

Throughout the history of the events leading to the Twenty-fourths formation, a strong political and bureaucratic movement resisted granting the African-American the right to officially wear the uniform of a U.S. soldier. As this study has demonstrated, African-American volunteers were never lacking in number. Why was the right to wear the uniform of a U.S. soldier so heavily guarded? Were the same difficulties experienced by immigrants? If so, did the performance of the black regiments play a crucial role?

This study briefly mentioned the formation of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Infantry regiments which later consolidated into the all black Twenty-fifth Infantry. Similarly, little has been recorded on those units contributions to the rebuilding of the south and the west. What duties did they perform in the Reconstruction South?

Another interesting gap lies in the role former soldiers played in the West following their departure from military service. Did their military experiences and discipline endear them to leadership positions in the building of African-American communities? Did Army

education and tutoring programs contribute to the elevation of literacy in these communities? What roles did African-American women play in the early Army regiments?

Another interesting question centers on the title given to these soldiers by the Indians they fought. What type of relationship existed between the Native-American and the "Buffalo Soldier"? Did they perceive each as respected warriors or condemn their roles in the westward expansion? Were African-American Prisoners Of War treated differently by Native-Americans than their fellow white soldiers?

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APPENDIX A

Deployment of Thirty-eighth Infantry

Cholera Outbreaks June – August 1867

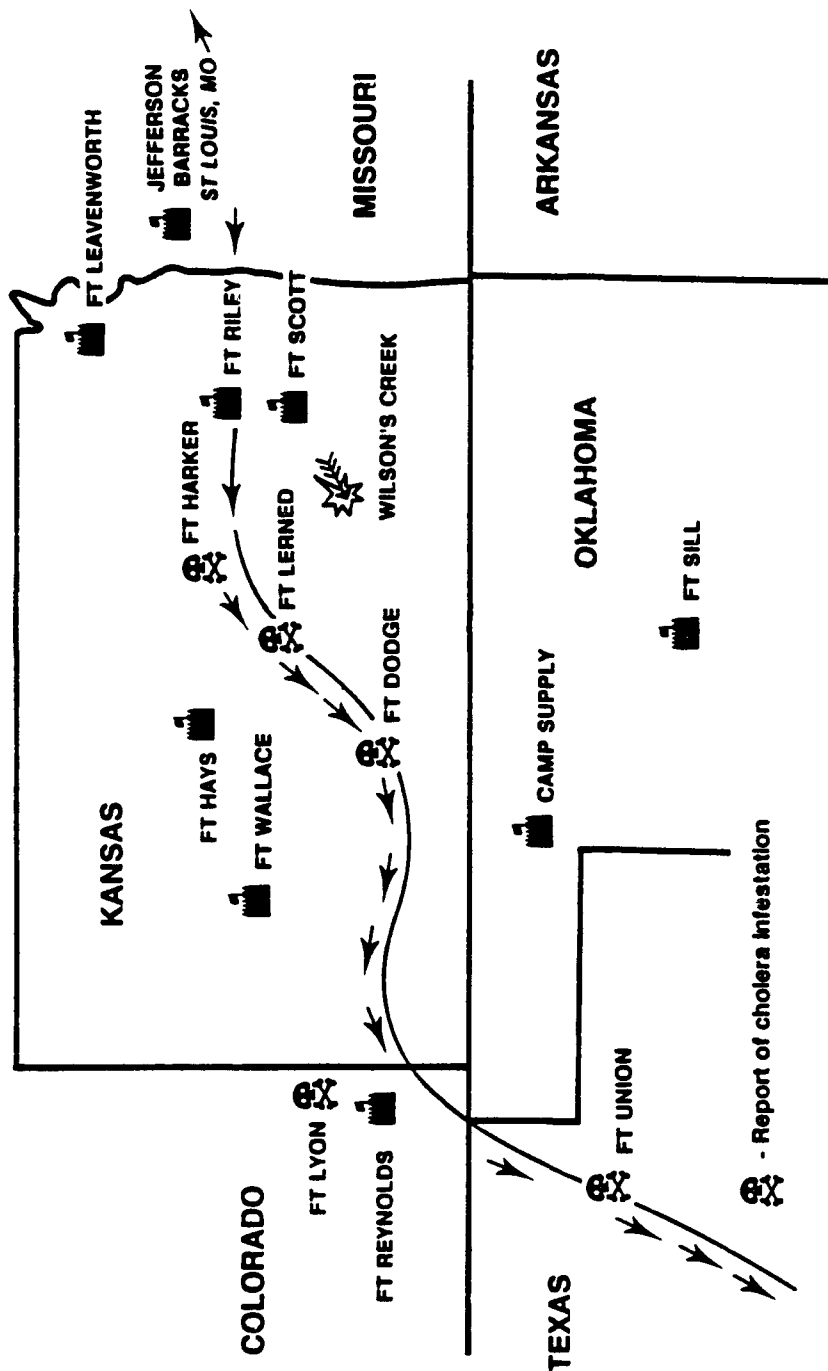


FIGURE 1

Deployment of Thirty-eighth Infantry

Deployment to Staked Plains June 1867—October 1869

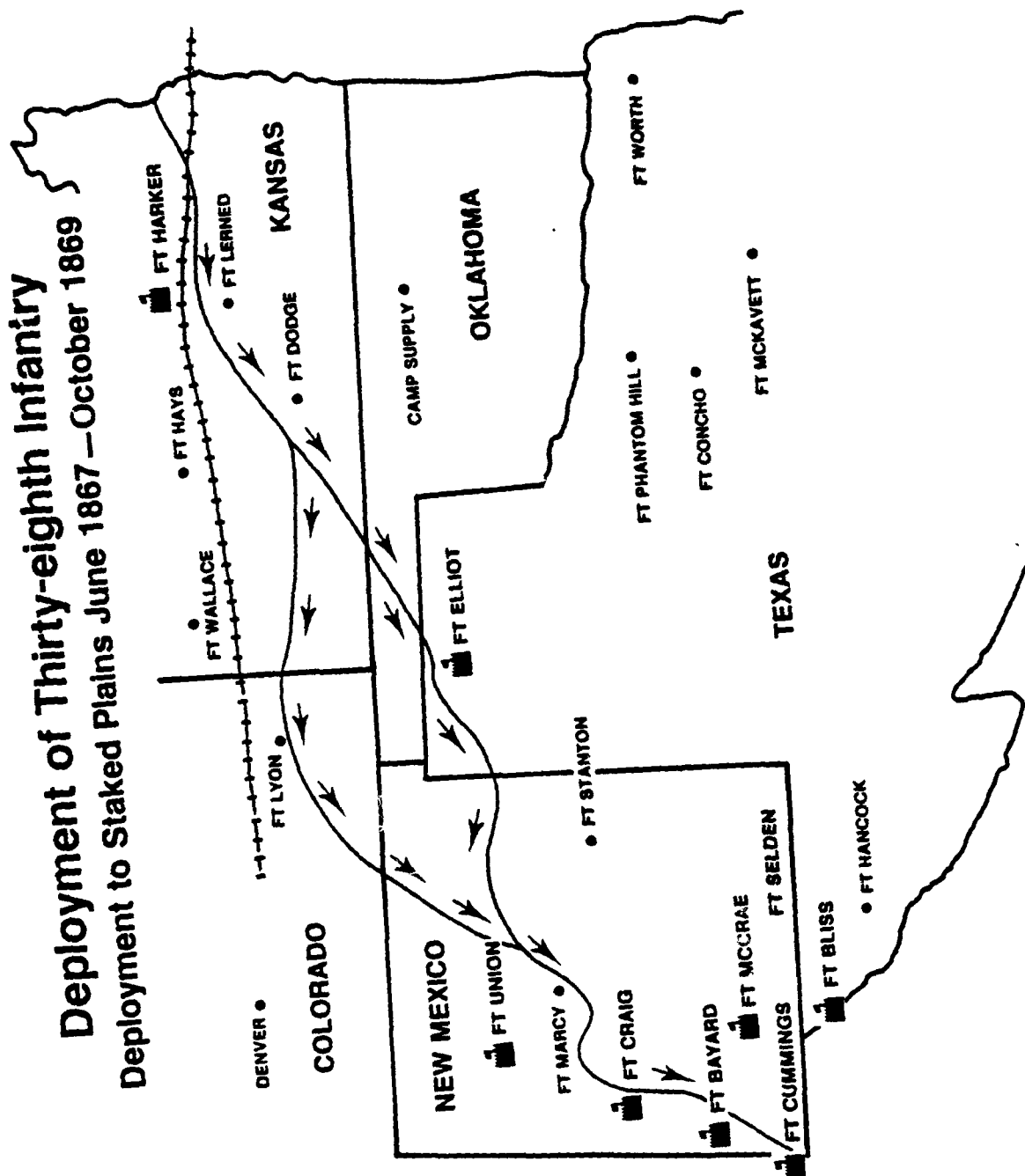


FIGURE 2

Deployment of Forty-first Infantry

June 1866 – October 1869

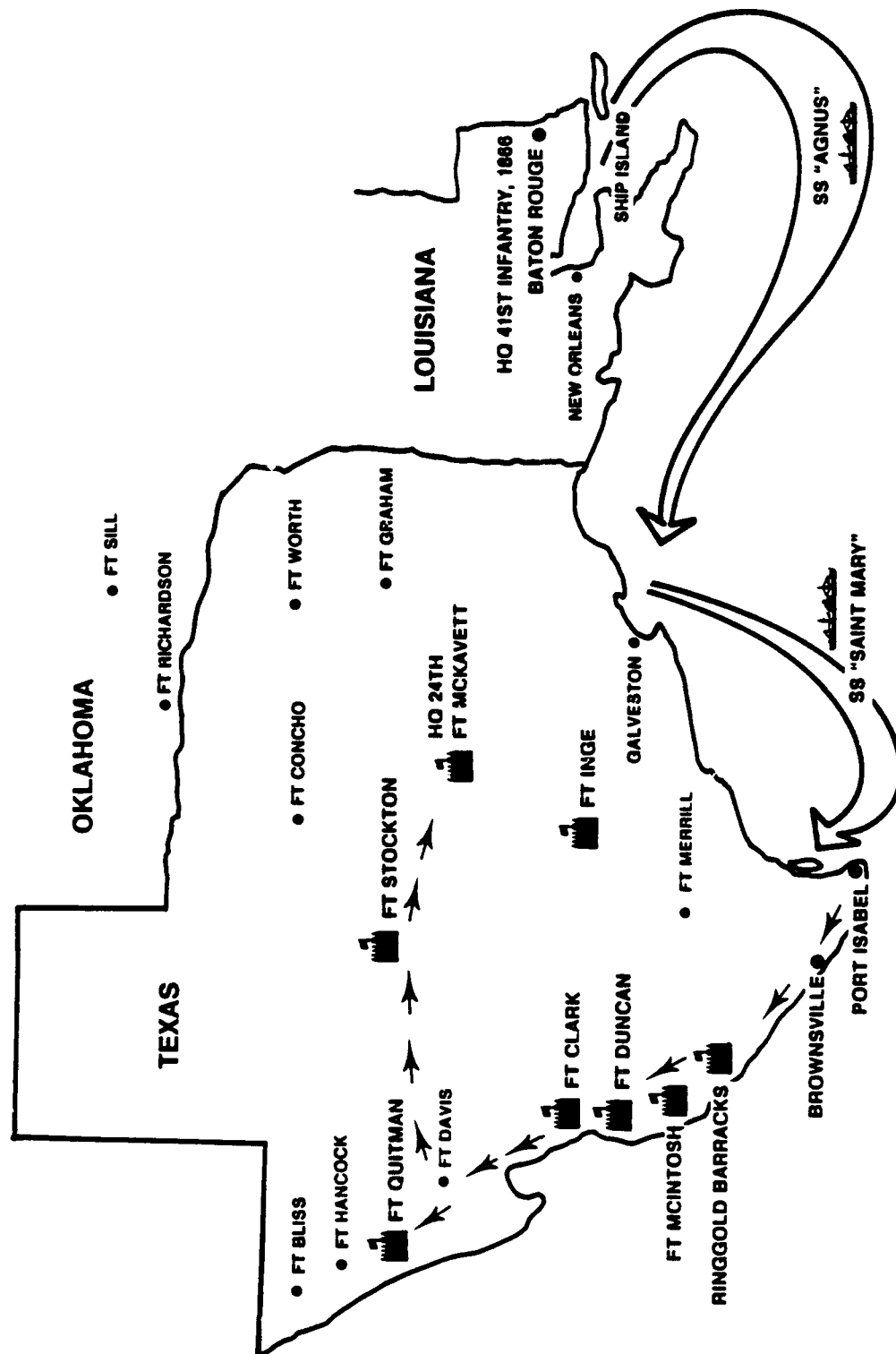


FIGURE 3

APPENDIX B



The Twenty-fourth Infantry

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY.

According to the Act of Congress approved July 28, 1866, and published to the service in G. O. 56, A. G. O., August 1, 1866, the Infantry arm of the military peace establishment consisted of forty-five regiments, the Thirty-eighth, Thirty-ninth, Fortieth and Forty-first being colored.

In compliance with the Act of Congress approved March 3, 1869, and published in G. O. 16, A. G. O., March 11, 1869, the Infantry of the army was to be consolidated into twenty-five regiments, the Thirty-eighth and Forty-first being consolidated and designated as the Twenty-fourth.

General Orders

No. 17

}

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,

ADJUTANT GENERAL'S OFFICE,

WASHINGTON, MARCH 15, 1869.

REORGANIZATION OF THE INFANTRY OF THE ARMY.

1. To accomplish the consolidation of the Infantry regiments of the Army, as required by *General Orders* No. 16, of the 10th instant, and at the same time make the transfers demanded by the necessities of the service as economically as possible, the President of the United States directs that movements and consolidations be made according to the following directions:

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29. TWENTY-FOURTH INFANTRY (colored), to be composed of the *Thirty-eighth and Forty-first Regiments*. The *Thirty-eighth and Forty-first Regiments* (colored) will be consolidated and known as the *Twenty-fourth Infantry*. The *Thirty-eighth* will be relieved as soon as possible from duty in New Mexico; will be marched across to Texas under command of Lieutenant Colonel Grover, and, under direction of the Department Commander of Texas, will be consolidated with the *Forty-first Regiment* now there.

The field officers will be—

RANALD S. MCKINZIE, Colonel.

CUVIER GROVER, Lieutenant Colonel.

HENRY C. MERRIAM, Major.

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The foregoing details will be carried into execution under the Department Commanders without unnecessary delay. Reports will be duly made to the Adjutant Commanders without unnecessary delay. Reports will be duly made to the Adjutant of the new Regiments will be forwarded as soon as they are consolidated.

By Command of General Sherman.

E. D. TOWNSEND,

Assistant Adjutant General.

APPENDIX C

OFFICIAL STATEMENT OF LINEAGE AND BATTLE HONORS		STATUS																								
DESIGNATION	COMPONENT																									
24th INFANTRY																										
LINEAGE																										
<p>Constituted 28 July 1866 as 38th Infantry</p> <p>Organized 1 October 1866 at Jefferson Barracks, Missouri</p> <p>Consolidated with 41st Infantry Regiment 15 March 1869 and redesignated 24th Infantry (see ANNEX)</p> <p>Assigned to 25th Infantry Division 1 February 1947</p> <p>Relieved 1 August 1951 from assignment to the 25th Infantry Division</p> <p>Inactivated 1 October 1951 in Korea</p> <p>ANNEX:</p> <p>41st Infantry constituted 28 July 1866 and organized 25 December 1866 at Baton Rouge, Louisiana, consolidated with 38th Infantry 15 March 1869 and redesignated 24th Infantry</p> <p>CAMPAIGN STREAMERS</p> <table border="0"> <tr> <td><u>Indian Wars</u></td> <td><u>Korean War</u></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Comanches</td> <td>UN defensive</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>UN offensive</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>War with Spain</u></td> <td>CCF intervention</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Santiago</td> <td>First UN counteroffensive</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>CCF spring offensive</td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>Philippine Insurrection</u></td> <td>UN summer-fall offensive</td> </tr> <tr> <td>San Isidro</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Luzon 1900-1901</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td><u>World War II</u></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Northern Solomons</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Western Pacific</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> <p>DECORATIONS</p> <p>Streamer, Republic of Korea Presidential Unit Citation, embroidered MASAN-CHINJU</p>			<u>Indian Wars</u>	<u>Korean War</u>	Comanches	UN defensive		UN offensive	<u>War with Spain</u>	CCF intervention	Santiago	First UN counteroffensive		CCF spring offensive	<u>Philippine Insurrection</u>	UN summer-fall offensive	San Isidro		Luzon 1900-1901		<u>World War II</u>		Northern Solomons		Western Pacific	
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<p>AUTHORITIES FOR ALL STATEMENTS OF FACT ARE CITED IN THE ORIGINAL NOTES ON FILE IN THE OFFICE, CHIEF OF MILITARY HISTORY.</p>																										

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